DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 197 319 CS 005 854

AUTHOR Waterman, David C., Comp.: Gibbs, Vanita M., Comp.
TITLE Reading: Focus for Enjoyment. Proceedings of the Annual Reading Conference (10th, Terre Haute, Indiana, June 12-13, 1980). Studies in Curriculum Development No. 1, 1981.
INSTITUTION Indiana State Univ., Terre Haute. Curriculum Research and Development Center.
PUB DATE Mar 81
NOTE 69p.

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Elementary Secondary Education: *Language Enrichment: *Literature Appreciation: *Motivation Techniques: Reading Improvement: *Reading Instruction: Reading Interests: *Reading Programs: Teaching Methods: *Vocabulary Development

ABSTRACT

Focusing on reading for enjoyment, the seven articles in this collection were drawn from the Tenth Annual Reading Conference held at Indiana State University. Topics discussed in the articles are: (1) reading aloud to students, (2) how to have fun while teaching vocabulary, (3) the enjoyment and affective dimensions of "EAS into Reading," (4) motivating students in secondary school classes, (5) how people process complex sentences, (6) increasing reading enjoyment through language experience, and (7) whole-language reading strategies that students enjoy. (FL)

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Studies in Curriculum Development No. 1, 1981

This monograph is one in a series of selected aspects of curriculum development.

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Proceedings of the 1980 Tenth Annual Reading Conference June 12-13

READING: FOCUS FOR ENJOYMENT

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SCHOOL OF EDUCATION,
INDIANA STATE UNIVERSITY
TERRE HAUTE

The material for this bulletin was organized by:

David C. Waterman

Professor of Education
Indiana State University

Vanita M. Gibbs

Professor of Education
Indiana State University

Dorothea Nelson
Managing Editor

Carole Gustafson
Copy Editor

Sue Lightfoot
Technical Assistant

Published by:

Curriculum Research and
Development Center
School of Education
Indiana State University
Terre Haute, Indiana

March, 1981

PREFACE

The primary purpose of the Proceedings for our annual reading conference is to permit those students who attended two of the afternoon sessions to have an opportunity to find out what good things went on in the other four sessions. Our scheduling does not permit the conferees to attend every session. But in addition, we publish these Proceedings to share ideas, to encourage those who have not attended our reading conference to do so, and through refreshing our memory, to rethink and react to the various ideas presented during the conference. During the process of editing the papers, we are struck with the diversity of ideas presented herein, as well as the high quality of the writing itself. The winnowing and sifting of these ideas will afford the careful reader an opportunity to compare and contrast his own ideas with those of our authors, to agree or not, and to judge the arguments set forth with one's own experiences. It is through this process that ideas truly become alive for the reader.

The focus for enjoyment shared in these articles places emphasis upon the affective domain. We recognize the importance of the cognitive aspects of learning to read, and in past conferences have offered many creative ideas for teaching children how to read more effectively. Now recognize, in this volume, the importance of feelings--humor and joy, as well as sadness and tears--in the act of learning to read. Those of us who work with youngsters every day soon realize that without a sense of humor we would indeed be lost! And in literature, as Jerry Mallett points out so well, we can find situations with humor that also reflect some of life's most pressing problems.

We express pride that this volume represents the tenth annual reading conference. A span of ten consecutive years of these reading conferences attests to the fine support that we have enjoyed from Indiana State University, and especially the Dean of Academic Services and Special Programs (formerly Summer Sessions) and the Dean of the School of Education. The Department of Elementary Education has been generous in underwriting the expenses of the rental of the Hulman Civic University Center, thus making it possible to continue to offer these conferences free to our students and the public. We trust that you, the reader, will find within these pages stimulating and provocative ideas which will enhance your own teaching of reading. We look forward to the decade ahead with high hopes that our conference efforts will continue to inspire you to be better teachers.

Vanita Gibbs

David Waterman

INDIANA STATE UNIVERSITY
HULMAN CIVIC UNIVERSITY CENTER

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READING: FOCUS FOR ENJOYMENT

PROGRAM OF
TENTH ANNUAL READING CONFERENCE

THURSDAY, June 12, 1980

9:30 - 11:00 A.M. Hulman Civic Center Meeting Room Complex

Presiding:
David C. Waterman, Co-chairperson

Welcome:
Harriet Darrow, Dean
Academic Services and Special Programs
Indiana State University

Richard Willey, Dean
School of Education
Indiana State University

Introduction of Speaker:
Vanita Gibbs, Co-chairperson

Speaker:
Jerry Mallett
"A Spoonful of Sugar Helps the Medicine Go Down"

1:30 - 2:20 P.M.

Room AB - Rexel Brown
"How to Have Fun While Teaching Vocabulary"

Room C - Mollie Dudgeon and Alice Reck
"The Enjoyment and Affective Dimensions of *EAS into Reading*"

Room DE - David Memory
"Motivating Reading in Secondary Classes"

2:30 - 3:20 P.M.

Room AB - Wayne Aller
"How People Process Complex Sentences: Data from Computer Controlled Experiments"

Room C - Richard Biberstine
"Enjoyment of Reading Through Language Experience"

Room DE - Susan Johnston
"Whole Language Reading Strategies Kids Enjoy"

- -

FRIDAY, June 13, 1980

9:30 - 11:00 A.M. Hulman Civic Center Meeting Room Complex

Speaker: Jerry Mallett
"Using Children's Books Creatively in the Classroom"
(Paper not included in Proceedings)

Speaker Jerry J. Mallett

The most manifest sign of wisdom is continued cheerfulness.
Montaigne

A SPOON FULL OF SUGAR HELPS THE MEDICINE GO DOWN

Jerry J. Mallett

An ironic fact has developed in the area of reading over the past several decades. We are producing more and more proficient readers who do not read! That's right . . . students who are quite capable of reading but never take the opportunity to read for pleasure. While schools certainly cannot take all of the blame, we had better stand up and accept a portion of it. What has happened to the fun of reading when audible groans accompany the statement, "Now children, take out your readers"?

There should be a time during the all too serious business of the school day to read just for the fun of it !!! Set aside the developmental reading skills at this time and read to enjoy. Certainly the schools that are using a current program referred to as "Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading" have recognized this need. This is a program where everyone, including the teacher, reads anything he or she desires for a designated portion of the school day.

Certainly one of the finest ways to help children develop this love of books and reading is the special time when the teacher reads to the class as a whole. This is a time when we share our love for a particular book.

Some years ago I was given a new book by the school librarian to read aloud to my class. I had no idea what this book was about but the librarian highly recommended it. Since we had just finished our last read-aloud book we were in need of another and the next day our class began the extremely sensitive book, *Sounder* by William Armstrong. Within approximately a week and a half the book was being read to its conclusion in our hushed classroom. Tears were trickling down many faces while I found the words more and more difficult to verbalize. Finally the last page was read . . . then utter silence. The twenty-eight persons in our class were as one . . . all feeling the boy's loss. Then the silence was broken by Barbara Ann's words. "Oh, Mr. Mallett," she said. "I wish that book had twenty thousand more words." Yes, good books, read by interested teachers just for the fun of it, can and do stimulate children's interest in reading. While all good children's books are fine to read aloud, as in the case of *Sounder*, I have found that one of the most FUN types to share is the humorous story. After all, laughter is contagious and enjoyed most in company and so the enjoyment of good books.

Jerry Mallett is Professor of Education at Findlay College, Findlay, Ohio.

Probably the humorous books that children enjoy most are those with situations with which they are capable of identifying. This is certainly what Ellen Raskin had in mind when she wrote *Nothing Ever Happens On My Block*. What child hasn't said dozens of times . . . "There's nothing to do!" This is Chester's problem as he sits on the curb of his street feeling terribly sorry for himself. As he wishes for things to do, a whole variety of fantastic things are taking place. A building catches on fire, a bank robber is apprehended, and a parachutist makes an emergency landing . . . just to name a few. Young children can easily see the absurdity of Chester's melancholy and delight in it.

They can also see the absurdity in Mary Christian's *Nothing Much Happened Today*. For when Mother comes rushing home from the market she is startled to find billions of soap bubbles billowing out of the bathroom window. When she greets her three children with the logical question of "What's happened?", she receives the all too typical reply from her oldest son, "Nothing much, really!" Not one to give up easily she continues. "But the bubbles . . . ." she yells. "Look at those bubbles!" Stephen explains that they must have used too much soap when they bathed their dog. "But why did you bathe the dog?" she asks. Alan points out that it was the only way to get all the sugar off his fur. Naturally she asks how the sugar got on the dog's fur in the first place and they explain that he knocked over the sugar sack while chasing the cat. Further questioning brings out the facts that they do not own a cat, the cat came in through the window and the window had been opened in order to let out the SMOKE! Children will soon be laughing at all of the things that really happened on their "do-nothing" day.

Equally funny and perfect for classroom use is *How To Lose Your Lunch Money* by Florence M. White. In this story a small boy quite methodically describes a step-by-step plan for not losing your lunch money. For example, "You arrange your books neatly in your desk . . . . At lunch time you walk quietly to the cafeteria." Unfortunately for the small boy, but fortunately for the reader, the illustrations hilariously depict the scenes as they more normally happen.

Mercer Mayer dispenses with words entirely in another of his marvelously funny frog books. Possibly his funniest to date, *One Frog Too Many* will have readers of all ages giggling at big frogs' jealous antics when a new little frog arrives and receives a wave of attention.

Lack of attention also creates the background for a very funny book about little Emily. Not only does Emily feel the brunt of a too-busy-to-play mother, but she is also told to take care of her baby brother. Well . . . this is just too much for Emily to handle and she decides to run away from home. Unfortunately she is saddled with "that klunky baby" which she is pulling on a sled. It seems that

everytime she begins to make headway in leaving home, the klunky baby falls off and the next-door dog climbs on. Joan Lexau in *Emily and the Klunky Baby and the Next-Door Dog* has created both a humorous and touching account of a small girl caught in the aftermath of a divorce.

Bedtime is often a war of nerves in many households and therefore children are especially tickled with Marjorie Sharmat's *Goodnight Andrew Goodnight Craig*. It seems that Andrew can't sleep . . . and when Andrew can't sleep, nobody sleeps! This is especially true of Craig, Andrew's older brother and roommate. Andrew is beginning to run out of excuses to keep Craig awake when he thinks of a whopper. "There's something in my bed," he says. "I think it's a sheep." Craig grudgingly explains that it simply can't be a sheep but finally gives up to go investigate. "Here's the sheep," Andrew points out. "Some sheep," says Craig. "It's your underwear all in a bunch." And so continues a very funny goodnight story.

One of the funniest picture books for the intermediate levels was written by Judith Viorst. The problem with *Alexander and the Terrible, Horrible, No Good, Very Bad Day* is that one reading is never enough. Children want to listen and laugh at Alexander's unbelievably bad day over and over again. After all, what child doesn't have a bad day every now and then? But to the delight of the reader Alexander's bad day puts all others' to shame. For the minute he gets out of bed he discovers that he went to sleep with gum in his mouth and now there's gum in his hair. While he's worrying about this he trips on the skateboard and by mistake he drops his sweater in the sink while the water is running. Unfortunately his day doesn't get any better but continues downhill right through to bedtime when he finds his bath too hot; he gets soap in his eyes; his marble disappears down the drain; and he is made to wear his railroad-train pajamas, which he hates.

Equally funny is Beverly Cleary's *Ramona the Pest*. This book, which is a story to last over several sittings, finds Ramona entering kindergarten. Poor Ramona has only the best of intentions but somehow things seem to continually backfire until she is finally classified as a "kindergarten drop-out!"

Take, for instance, her very first day at kindergarten. Miss Binney, the prettiest teacher in the world, tells the class that "the person who rests on their mats most quietly will get to be the wake-up fairy." Ramona is determined to be the wake-up fairy and so she lays flat on her back with her hands tight to her sides. But she tries a little too hard, and she begins to snore. This brings giggles and a host of competing kindergarten snores with which Miss Binney then must contend. Third and fourth graders seem to take special delight in Ramona's antics probably because kindergarten is still close enough to remember, but far enough removed to be terribly funny.

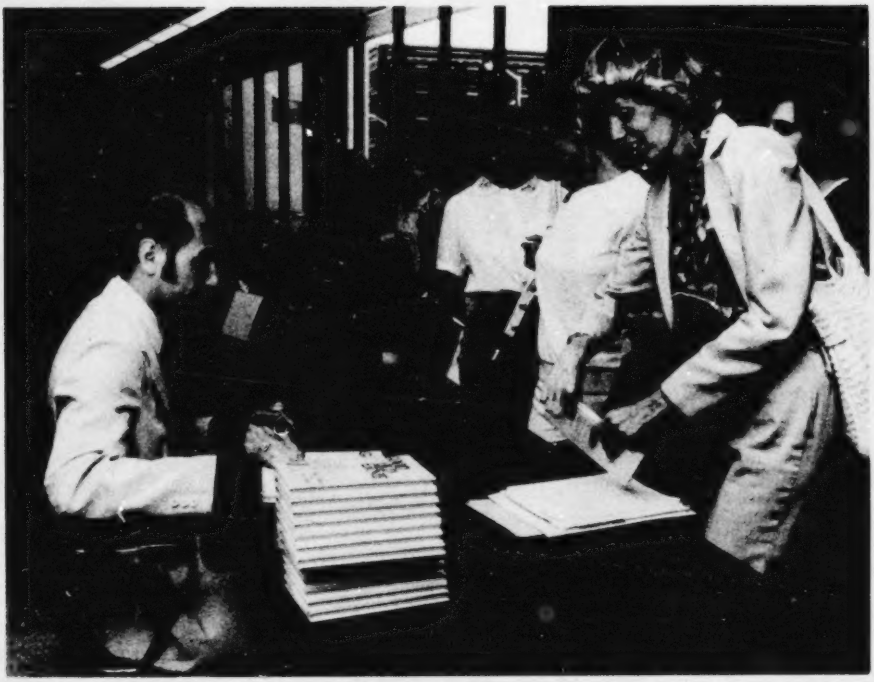
Another nilarious book for these particular grade levels is *Tales of a Fourth Grade Nothing* by Judy Blume. Incident after incident finds nine-year-old Peter baffled, shocked, indignant, and chagrined by his two-year-old brother, Fudge. At Fudge's birthday party Peter is told to entertain the group of two- and three-year olds. In desperation he shows them his pet turtle named Dribble. Little Jennie immediately asks if Dribble can make! "Make what?" he asks. "Make a tinkle!" she answers and to his horror a puddle begins to form on the floor in his bedroom as Jennie proceeds to show the group how *she* can tinkle.

All intermediate youngsters who are discovering the multitude of do's and don't's at the dinner table will howl at Arthur's predicaments. "He won't close his mouth when he chews," complains Arthur's sister. "Don't play with the saltshaker," instructs his mother. "Don't talk when your mouth is full," orders his father. "Little bits of ravioli are landing on your sister!" Yes . . . Russell Hoban, in his book *Dinner at Alberta's*, has indeed given us a book worth sharing with our students.

The escapades in which Rob and Soup find themselves will have your class near tears from laughter. In one of the funniest episodes of Robert Peck's *Soup and Me*, the two boys decide to go swimming in the nude in Putt's Pond. Unfortunately for the boys one of their most hated classmates, Janet Riker, happens along. While Rob and Soup are forced, through modesty, to hide themselves in the near freezing water (after all it is only May) she proceeds to throw all their clothes into the pond. How the boys manage to get home will be a sheer delight to your students.

For real belly laughs you must read to your class Barbara Robinson's *The Best Christmas Pageant Ever*. You won't soon forget the Herdman clan and their hilarious reign of terror at Sunday school. Oh yes . . . and don't miss *Jennifer, Hecate, Macbeth, William McKinley, and Me, Elizabeth* by E.L. Konigsburg. Your students will love Jennifer, who proclaims herself a witch, and Elizabeth who is forced to endure some very funny initiation ceremonies as the witch's apprentice. And then there's Sonia Levitin's *The Mark of Conte* for the older students. Oh . . . there are just so many good books to share with children.

The next time you want to "just read for the fun of it" let Chester, the Frog, Stephen, Emily, Andrew and Craig plus the many other marvelous children's books' characters help you.



Jerry Mallett autographs a copy of *Good Old Ernie* for Patti Bates, doctoral fellow.

I have no riches but my thoughts,
yet these are wealth enough for me.
Sara Teasdale

HOW TO HAVE FUN WHILE TEACHING VOCABULARY

Rexel E. Brown

Research has shown that vocabulary knowledge is significantly related to improving children's reading comprehension. In fact, in the four or five factors found correlated with comprehension, vocabulary knowledge appears consistently. Unfortunately, there is little research to show us the most effective ways to develop children's reading or meaning vocabulary. It is my opinion that interesting activities, taught by enthusiastic "word-nuts," "psycholexicographers" as I like to call them, lead to a great increase in words known and the degree to which they are known.

I rebel against what I call the DULL Technique that has developed, partly out of dependence on the materials we have available, and partly because this is the way *we* were taught words. The DULL Technique includes the following procedures:

Definitions--Many teachers still use the practice of having children write out the meanings of words. This technique has no research to back it and is probably the most ineffective way to teach a child to love words. Its weakness lies in the child's merely copying a meaning without really thinking about it--usually the first meaning in the dictionary, regardless of the context in which the word is used.

Unimportant, Uninteresting, and Unrelated Words--For a student to really develop a feeling for words, they must be those that he feels he can use in either his writing or speaking, or ones that clearly will help him understand his reading in content areas. Words should be within the range of a child's use and understanding. Edgar Dale (1976) suggests taking words for study from what he calls the Twilight Zone. These are words that are gradually entering the child's consciousness either from his everyday reading and conversation or from his content area subjects. These are words that he has heard and has a vague idea of what they mean, as opposed to words that he has never heard or words that he knows at least one meaning for.

Lists--Too many words at one time not only gives the child what David Pearson calls the Charlie Brown Syndrome (he thinks he must learn all of them), but often overloads the child's memory system leading to either incomplete or shallow learning. Some teachers have been known to give 10 words a day, and many high school word power courses try to develop a vocabulary list of 500 words in a semester. These words are usually taken from some commercial material unrelated to the student's present day needs.

Rexel Brown is Associate Professor of Education at the University of Evansville.

Limited Teaching--By this I mean the superficial teaching of too many words. The teacher may be satisfied with accomplishing the vocabulary phase of the basal reader where the word is introduced and used only in the context of the story in which it appears. (Most basals, however, do suggest that these words be studied in greater depth either in the skills section or in the enrichment section.) Commercial materials such as "skill-texts" are generally what I call one-dimensional in their approach, asking the student to pick out a synonym, antonym, or definition. This is more than likely testing a child's knowledge of a word rather than teaching him the meaning.

I believe that we can overcome all of the above weaknesses by following David Russell's Three-Dimensional Approach and by adding some of the more creative and motivating activities that have been developed in the last decade. Russell suggested that there were three dimensions to each person's vocabulary: width--the number of words that a person knows at least one meaning for; height--the number of meanings that a person knows for each of these words; and depth--the depth of understanding of the word. This last area, called the psycholinguistic level, is the emotional attachment to the meaning of a word, the relationship between this word and other words, the preciseness with which the word is used, or the "gut-level" feeling we have when we see or hear the word.

Most of the activities discussed below are designed to develop this depth dimension. Some were developed as early as the fifties while others are just now appearing in the literature. In no way do I suggest that a teacher try to use all of them with each word, rather I would like to see each of them tried over a year's time to discover its value. Different approaches also improve motivation for learning. The activities I will discuss are:

1. Questioning strategies
2. Children's semantic space
3. Word feature analysis
4. Word origins
5. Figurative language
6. Acting out words
7. Microlearning stations
8. Word cue cards
9. Words about words and games with words

Questioning Strategies

Questioning strategies have been studied extensively as a technique for developing comprehension, but a strategy about words has rarely been developed. Botel (1959) suggests the following strategy:

> Assume the student meets the word *base* in his reading. The teacher may probe the student's depth of understanding of the word and increase his awareness of it by asking the following questions.
>
> (1) The *definition* question
>
> What does the word base mean in the sentence? "He was at the *base* of the pyramid."
>
> (2) The *semantic* question
>
> What other meanings do you know for the word *base*?
>
> (3) The *synonym* question
>
> What word could you substitute for the word *base* in this sentence without changing the meaning?
>
> (foot, bottom, etc.)
>
> (4) The *antonym* question
>
> What word could we substitute for the word *base* in this sentence and change the meaning to exactly the opposite of that in the sentence.
>
> (top, peak, apex, etc.)

Another technique that requires students to think deeply about a word meaning is what I call the Jackson Technique. In this technique, the teacher can help the child overcome his inadequacies in word meaning by asking two types of questions:

> (1) Could some instance in the world meet the criteria I have established by my meaning and still not be a part of that group I am trying to define?
>
> Suppose the teacher asks the child, "What is an orange?"
>
> The child may answer, "It's round and orange in color and we eat it."
>
> The teacher would then ask: "Is there any thing else that is round and orange in color that we eat but is still not an orange?"
>
> Thus, the teacher gets the child to refine his definition until it excludes everything that is not an orange.

(2) Could an instance which *should* belong under the meaning for the word which I am trying to define fail to meet the criteria I have established in my definition?

In the case of the *orange* some oranges are yellow; others are green when picked. Some may not be edible.

I would also recommend questions based on Evanechko's (1972) Children's Meaning Categories. This is a list of 24 ways in which children define words. A sampling of these categories and the questions they might generate are given below:

Even a simple word like *lemon* could be developed more fully by asking questions based on the following categories. (Numbers are original categories.)

(3) Supraordinate

Under what grouping could you put lemon?
Possible answers:
a fruit, a citrus fruit, a flavor

(4) Coordinate

What other fruit would be under citrus fruits?
limes, oranges

(5) Attribute

What are some qualities of a lemon?
sour, tangy, juicy

(8) Action-upon

What do we do with a lemon?
eat it, squeeze it

(9) Whole-part

What are some parts of a lemon?
rind, seeds, juice, pulp, skin

(12) Use of

For what do we use a lemon?
pie, lemonade, flavoring, to make invisible ink

(20) Denotation in context
Use the word *lemon* in a sentence.

McCullough (1968) developed a thought pattern chart which might be the source of a questioning technique. Shown below are some of the

categories of her chart and some suggested questions: (Only four of the 20 categories on her chart are shown here.)

Whole-part relationships

A lemon is part of a _____. A_____ is part of a lemon.

Cause and effect

What will happen when you eat a lemon?

Comparison-Contrast

How would you compare a lemon to an orange in taste? Size? Color?

Multiple meanings

What does a person mean when he says his car is a lemon?

The teacher's own questions could be as motivating as any of these techniques and would be even more efficient since they could be matched with the age, intelligence, and interests of a particular class.

Children's Semantic Space

A group of activities may be categorized under children's semantic space. The reader is encouraged to read the sources given for a more detailed study of these. Johnson (1980) suggests exercises such as the following to develop children's awareness of likenesses and differences in words.

I. How are words "the same?"

1. Take this list of words and place them in two categories. Then give each category a title. Your categories need not contain equal numbers of words.

cat	zebra	cobra	ant
whale	dog	lion	parakeet
tiger	cow	eagle	snail

Category 1: _____ Category 2: _____

Now do the same thing choosing three categories.

II. How are words different?

1. Synonym - "One of two or more words having a similar meaning." Most persons would agree that the following list of words are synonyms for *walk*. But are the meanings the "same?" Use each word once in the following sentences. (You may have to change the tense of some of them.)

   strut stalk saunter march pace tread

   John _____ back and forth outside the hospital delivery room.

   John purposely _____ over the freshly sprouted tulips.

   After the argument, John _____ off in disgust.

   John's teacher said: "John, you _____ right up here and apologize for throwing that spitball."

   John _____ over to the woman in the blue dress, hoping to be noticed.

   John _____ back to his seat after accepting the award.

Evanechko (1972) has developed a chart he calls "Children's Meaning Categories" that delineates the semantic space a child may use in defining a word. Shown below are some of the easiest of the 24 categories that he lists and a specific type of activity that could be used by the teacher to develop an understanding of that dimension.

(1) Synonym--Word is defined by giving a synonym

Exercises that help the student come to understand this dimension are usually similar to those in commercial vocabulary developments. The student is given a specific word and asked to give as many synonyms as he knows that mean the same or about the same. The category might best be used with (2)--similarity--since words meaning exactly the same are not as plentiful as one might think.

(2) Similarity--Word is defined by giving several similar words that vary in degree or occupy a more extreme position. A student when given the word *hungry* might give such words as *starving*, *famished*, or *ravenous*.

Exercises in this category should have the student show the variation in degree or intensity. A gradient, or intensity scale, might be developed. Suppose the student is given the

word *big* and asked to list words of a similar nature. After listing *huge, enormous, large, gigantic,* then, the student would be asked to put them in a scale according to degree:

big--large--huge--enormous--gigantic

The student could then be asked to expand the word to the left with words such as these:

microscopic--tiny--small (all to the left of *big*)

(3) Supraordinate--Word is defined by giving a class to which it belongs. A child, when given the word *sparrow*, defines it as "a type of bird."

Exercises designed to develop a student's understanding of this dimension would encourage moving up the ladder of abstraction to a more generic definition.

Give the student the list on the left and ask him to supply the larger class to which it belongs.

a. apple--fruit
b. oak--tree
c. carrot--vegetable

The student could then be asked to expand any of these by using the coordinate category below.

(4) Coordinate--In defining the word the student gives other words of the same class. Taking the word *apple* he might list other fruits that grow on trees, such as *pear, peach,* or *orange.*

(5) Attribute--The student would show his conception of the word by giving words that refer to a quality or characteristic associated with that word.

Exercises designed around this category would ask the student to give words that are attributes of the studied word. These might be categorized as *taste, appearance, texture.*

Student is given the word *orange.*

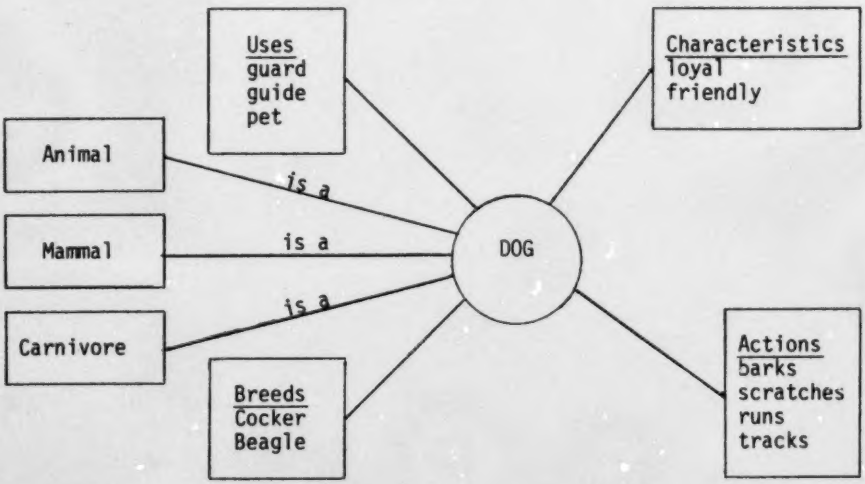
He gives words describing appearance--round, orange (color); taste--sweet, sour, acidic.

Two other categories that a gifted teacher might use for developing exercises would be:

Contrast--The student is asked to give the word on the opposite end of a continuum; e.g., given the word *rapid* the child gives *slow.*

Action of--Student is asked what type of action do we see in a *dog*. It *barks, scratches, eats, runs, shakes its tail,* etc.

Similar to the techniques described above would be the use of semantic maps as described by Pearson and Johnson (1978). After being shown how the map works the student would be asked to fill in a map such as the one shown below. This graphic representation would be an extension of the type of activities mentioned above. A final activity for the gifted student might be to design his own semantic map.



Word Feature Analysis

A word feature analysis chart has also been suggested by Pearson and Johnson as an activity that would demonstrate to students that very rarely will two words have exactly the same meaning although they may share many features in common. These authors suggest the following steps in developing a word feature analysis chart:

1. Select a category.
2. List in a column some words within this category.
3. List in a row some features shared by some of these words.
4. Put pluses or minuses beside each word beneath each feature.
5. Add additional words.
6. Add additional features.

7. Complete the expanded matrix with pluses and minuses.
8. Discover and discuss the uniqueness of each word.
9. Repeat the process with another category.

They use the category of *conveyances* for the first activity. Shown below is their chart for this category.

Features / words	Conveyances													
	2 wheel	3 wheel	4 wheel	motor	passenger									
bike	+	-	-	-	-									
auto	-	-	+	+	+									
skateboard	-	-	+	-	-									
motorcycle	+	-	-	+	-									
tricycle	-	+	-	-	-									

Preceding semantic maps and semantic space by almost a decade, McCullough (1968) developed a very useful chart that, in its simplicity, offers perhaps an easier method of teaching much of the same concepts. Taking some of the categories of her chart, one can see the depth with which children could study the previously used word *orange*.

1. Whole-part relationships

   The student is asked to give the parts of the orange. (*peel, seed, pulp, juice*)

2. Generalization--classification

   Students might be asked to make generalizations about the growth of the orange or its nutritional value.
   (Oranges grow in warm climates.)
   (Oranges are good for the skin and gums.)

   Or classification: (Oranges are citrus fruit.)

3. Cause-effect relationships

   (Orange trees are destroyed by frost and the cost of oranges goes up.)

4. Comparison-contrast

   Students are asked to compare *oranges* and *grapefruit.*

   (Oranges are sweeter in taste, different in color, smaller, etc.)

5. Conditions

   Ask students what is needed for an orange to grow.

   (Soil, sunlight, warmth, minerals, etc.)

Other categories in this chart include *qualities, used, time-relationships, place-relationships, antonyms, synonyms, multiple-meanings, word derivation, definitions, word form, laws and theories, summarization, procedures and used in literature.*

Giving different children categories within their grasps could lead to an in-depth discussion of a single word. One student might want to explore a word from several different dimensions.

Word Origins--Historical and Geographical Linguistics

The study of the words of our language has in recent years evolved from the esoteric domain of the linguists to a more viable and fascinating activity for both the student and teacher. No teacher, worth her chalk, ignores the many ways in which words come into being. A word with an interesting history or usage is just as intriguing to the verbally-gifted student as it is to the most sophisticated linguist--a fact known to publishers who have begun to develop materials written for students at all levels. Many adult-level books are well within the readability range of many students and offer materials ranging in difficulty from intermediate grades to post-graduate levels. The suggestions for word study that follow are for both the students and the teacher. It must be repeated that the teacher must become a "word-nut," or "psycholexicographer," if he wishes to inspire his students in studying words at this depth. The types of words developed in these exercises are mentioned by Shipley (1977).

1. Invented words

   The easiest way to develop a new word is just to make it up. In a sequence of activities the teacher should first have students search the references for such words that have been added to our language, either individually or as a group.

Blimp, kodak, hamburger, pyrex were coined to fit a specific need, and such words are found in every area of study. After students have researched the origin of such words, students should be asked to coin words that would be useful in today's world.

2. Use of proper names for concepts

   The teacher might begin by having students research their own names to see the reverse of this idea. This procedure is highly motivational and will show students that words like *cooper, smith, baker* can become surnames and words like *sandwich, sideburns,* and *atlas* can be made from surnames.

3. Borrowed words

   Many of our words are taken directly into our language from other languages. After a general search for such words to get students to see the number of different countries "loaning" words to us, students should be asked to concentrate on specific countries either individually or in groups. Classroom source books could be developed; bulletin boards or charts could be shown as a group project. Such activities would have the added value of showing the wide diversity of people making up our country.

4. Meaning shifts

   Students in these activities are involved in learning the structure of historical and geographical linguistics. Projects where the students research cases of *pejoration* (*hussy* has been lowered in status), *amelioration* (*minister* has been raised in status), *generalization* (*ship* at one time meant to send by ship only but now includes sending by any conveyance), or *specialization* (*lad* at one time meant boy or girl but now means only boy). Geographical linguistic study would have students take a common word like *soda* and see how other words are used in other parts of the country for the same idea, i.e., *coke, pop, soft drink.* Also in this category would be the comparison of two English speaking countries' terms for the same idea: *lift* for *elevator, chemist* for *druggist,* etc.

Other areas for research and study would include:

a. hypostatization--words for things that do not really exist:

   vampire, werewolf, giant, fairy, gnome

b. portmanteau words (blends or telescope words)--words made by putting two words together, leaving out some letters:

   smog (smoke + fog), motel (motor + hotel), brunch (breakfast + lunch)

c. euphemisms--replacing disagreeable words with more pleasant words:

undertaker (mortician, funeral director), malignancy (tumor, cancer)

Figurative Language

Figurative language is used by authors, poets, song writers and many others in the media. Children can be taught how to recognize and interpret figurative language and to see how it enriches the vocabulary of a country. A teacher might want to consider some of those given below and to use some of the suggested activities.

1. Antieuphemism: Opposite of euphemism - an unpleasant or harsh term used for effect.

   A. "The poor guy kicked the bucket."

2. Euphemism: An inoffensive way of expressing an idea that is unpleasant.

   A. funeral director
   B. sanitation engineer
   C. pass away

3. Hyperbole: An exaggeration; stretching the truth.

   A. "He has more money than Quakers has oats."
   B. "I've got every reason in the world to be mad."

4. Irony: The literal meaning is the opposite of what is intended.

   A. That's a *fine way* to do your work.

5. Metaphor: Draws comparison between two things although not introduced by as, like or than.

   A. You are the sunshine of my life.

6. Metonymy: To use the name of one thing for that of another which it suggests.

   A. The pen is mightier than the sword.

7. Oxymoron: Combining words of opposite meaning.

   A. *Sounds* of silence.
   B. She led a *bittersweet* life.

8. Personification: An inanimate object possesses personal attributes.

   A. Whispering winds.

9. Simile: Compares two objects joining them with as, like or than.

   A. "Like a pine tree lining a winding road."

10. Synecdoche: Using a part to represent the whole of something.

   A. Lend me a hand with this load.

Suggestions for teaching figurative language would include:

1. Pictures -

   A. Show pictures of the literal meanings and ask for students to match them or guess what they might mean.

      Ex: Apple Polishing

   B. Give an expression and have child draw a picture of the meaning.

2. Songs -

   Give students copies of the words of popular songs and ask them to find figurative speech.

   Give commercials to search through for figurative language.

3. Ask parents and grandparents for figures of speech they have used.

   Ex: "How did you describe thrifty people?"

4. Read books like *Tom Sawyer* and compare figures of speech of a different era. Also compare those of different localities, different people, different genre, and different social-economic groups.

5. Research an expression to find out how it came about.

6. Challenge students to create their own figurative language.

7. Dramatize the literal meaning of an expression.

   Ex: skits or charades

Pearson and Johnson (1978) suggest the following techniques to show the comparative nature of figurative language. These may be oral or written.

Say: *Henry is tall. A tree is tall.*

If we want to combine these ideas to emphasize Henry's tallness we would say:

Henry is as tall as a tree.

The authors suggest that we should emphasize two aspects of figurative language:

(1) We usually draw comparisons in figurative language.

(2) We select the second item in the comparison because it naturally possesses the attribute we want to emphasize about the first item in comparison.

Other examples that might be used for practice would follow this same form.

1. John is a messy eater. A pig is a messy eater. John _____ like a _____.
2. Jack is fast. Lightning is fast. Jack is as fast as lightning.

Comparing metaphors and similes.

Henry is as slow as a snail. (simile)

_____ _____ like _____ _____. (simile)

_____ is a _____. (metaphor)

To teach children to recognize the literal meaning of figurative language, give a list of statements and ask students to select a literal interpretation from several choices.

Ex: Vicky said, "It's raining cats and dogs!"

A. Cats and dogs were falling out of the sky.

B. It was sprinkling lightly.

C. It was raining quite heavily.

Acting Out Words

Acting out words, either in charades or skits, adds another interesting dimension to word study. Spache (1976) indicates that word usage does not transfer automatically from one's reading vocabulary to one's speaking vocabulary, but such oral activities help. Boning's *Word Theater* (1978) is one of the best commercial materials available for this type of activity. In this program three or four students are guided in developing a skit using a particular word in several ways.

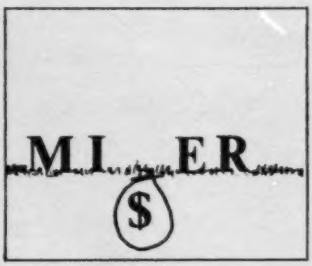
Microlearning Stations

Of special value in open-concept schools is a technique I developed which I called *Vocabuladders*. These are single-concept learning stations made of file folders in which one word is taken

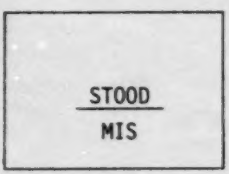
through a series of games and activities. Working individually the student is asked to read about a specific word, use it in writing, do a series of games and puzzles to teach multiple meanings, and finally, test his understanding of the word. Junior high students may develop their own learning stations.

Word Cue Cards

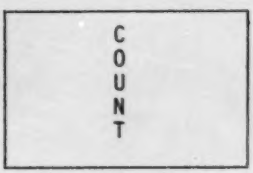
As a respite from the cerebral gymnastics mentioned previously, the teacher may wish to switch to some of the following activities to add variety to vocabulary development. Students may be asked to illustrate their knowledge of a specific word by developing a graphic illustration or word cue, or "self-describer" as they are sometimes called. These can reveal different levels of understanding as can be seen by the two student samples shown below. The drawing on the right shows much deeper understanding than the picture on the left. These may be used for a class vocabulary scrapbook.



Similarly, the use of student or teacher made word pictures, called *Droodles* by Roger Price in the fifties and *Pundles* by Greg Nash (1979) today, may be used. The three shown below progess in levels of understanding from the left to the right.

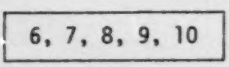


misunderstood

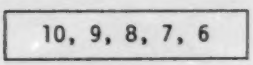


countdown

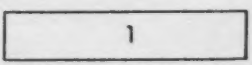
short end of the stick



Bo Derek growing up



Bo Derek growing old



The kind of girl a masochist looks for

Words About Words and Games With Words

Brighter children may be "turned on" by word search activities that offer a challenge for the verbally gifted. There are certain oddities in words especially suitable for such students. Shipley (1977) gives several of these that might intrigue the student who likes word puzzles. For example:

Reversible words--words that spelled backwards make another word:

diaper, gnat, rail, golf

Palindromes--a special type of reversible that reads the same right to left as left to right:

civic, kayak, repaper, Madam I'm Adam.

Irreversible binomials--paired make equal sense but turned around would sound strange:

by hook or crook, town and gown

Swallow-words, kangaroo words or marsupials--words that consist of a word within that is a synonym. (The letters are not necessarily adjacent but are always in the right order.)

*res*pite (rest), *evacuate* (vacate), cata*comb* (tomb)

Charitable words--words that give up any letter and still form a valid word:

seat: sea, set, sat, eat

Hospitable words--words that can accept a letter any place and make a word:

rap: trap, reap, rasp, rapt

Amenable words--a word that can exchange any letter for another:

load: road, lead, lord, loan

Or, for those who enjoy puns and other word play, students might search for or develop the following from Espy (1975) and Shipley (1977).

Malapropisms - He asked her to become his mistress and she reclined to do so.

Malaphor - He threw a cold shoulder on that idea.

Goldwynism - Anyone who goes to a psychiatrist ought to have his head examined.

Spoonerism - It's kisstomary to cuss the bride.

Wellerism - "I've been struck by the beauty of the place," said the fresh young man when the pretty girl slapped him.

Tom Swifty - "Someone's at the door," she chimed.
"Get to the back of the boat," she said sternly.

Equivoque - (A passage when read that may have different meanings.)
They live by the greenhouse. They live by the green house.

Further study might include work with:

acronyms, anagrams, onomatopoeia, slang, argot, cant, jargon, curtailed words, clipped words or colloquialisms.

Since many jokes are based on a misunderstanding or misuse of words, a teacher might wish to collect jokes that actually teach a word meaning with humor. The following example from a television broadcast by John Kenneth Galbraith probably teaches the two italicized words better than any method suggested in commercial materials.

Pollster asks woman: Do you believe that *ignorance* or *apathy* is the greatest danger to our country?

Woman: I don't know and I don't care!

Another common source of good vocabulary activities is the use of menus. Jane Brown, a 4th grade teacher in Evansville, Indiana, recently used a group of menus from a local restaurant to teach words that are used to sell foods. She and the class searched the menu for adjectives that were used to sell them on certain foods. More than seventy different adjectives were found! Children were then asked to categorize these into groups according to how they tried to encourage the customer to buy.

Nostalgia	Size of Portions	Taste	Smell	Appearance	Texture
down-on-the-farm	thick jumbo	delicious piquant flavor-king spicy	tangy spicy	pink golden-fried	tender juicy

In summary, I would like to say that there are many novel ways to teach vocabulary that involve all learning modalities. I have tried many of these methods in classes from grade four through college and have had my students use them with their classes. The rewards were greater interest and deeper understanding.

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THE ENJOYMENT AND AFFECTIVE DIMENSION OF *EAS INTO READING*

PART I: THE ENJOYMENT DIMENSION

Alice Reck

In 1976, our principal initiated a plan to develop a new reading program that hopefully would more effectively meet the needs of our student body. Low reading scores, social and economical environmental handicaps, unmotivated independent readers plus numerous other factors already familiar to you indicated something needed to be done. These symptoms neither uncommon to others nor unique to us were overwhelming enough to demand an evaluation and revision of the current reading program at that time.

The evident need, the determination to improve, a genuine desire to help our students and a commitment of both the staff and administration led to the "EAS" program we are presently using.

We will omit the frustrations, discouragements, or committee members' threats for early retirement or building transfers and share the progress, successes, rewards and joys that have evolved.

It has been extremely gratifying to read in several articles of recent professional journals that what our committee felt was essential in a well-balanced reading curriculum was being described as the "missing links" in the so-called traditional basal text programs.

I was overwhelmed when I read the following caption in the May, 1980 *Instructor* magazine article. "Today's elementary students sit through more than 2,000 hours of reading instruction."[1] The longer I reflected on this the more aware I became of the school's responsibilities to provide a variety of learning experiences to continually motivate, strengthen, broaden, and expand the teaching of reading. A 2,000 hour course in reading could be and often is deadly, and its mortality rate is extremely high. A 2,000 hour course in equipping a child to develop a lifelong reading habit can and should be one of the greatest challenges of our time. Our committee found this to be true. It redirected our attention to the end result, that of reading for personal satisfaction and pleasure, rather than the means of achieving the end.

Alice Reck is a media specialist at West Vigo Elementary School.

In the same article another item triggered some uncomfortable moments of reflection. "Professional educators have a responsibility to teach children 'to read' as well as 'how to read.'"[2]

One of the greatest rewards I have personally encountered this past year is the confirmation that our initial decision, a difficult yet unanimous one, to design a three-faceted program was a very important one. "EAS" encompasses opportunities for the enjoyment of reading, enhances the affective domain and provides a skills management system that affords students the tools necessary to decode the printed word.

The major goal of the enjoyment facet is to develop in each child a purposeful and individually planned lifelong reading habit. This goal will be developed by:

(1) Providing each child with appropriate reading and literature-related activities and experiences in addition to basal materials.

(2) Inventorying individual interests to align reading experiences to those interests.

(3) Affording a variety of opportunities to discover personal relevance and value in what the child reads thus developing a positive attitude toward independent reading.

Operational procedures used are:

(1) Each teacher spends 50 minutes per week reading aloud to the class. Some teachers use short reading periods each day, while others prefer longer but less frequent periods.

(2) Silent independent reading times of three 10-minute periods at the primary level and three 15-minute periods at the intermediate level are provided. These time periods may be altered in specific situations. Kindergarten classes may use two shorter periods per day rather than one 10-minute period. Materials read by the students and teachers are independently selected.

(3) Book sharing or log keeping of the reading takes various forms. We encourage opportunities for individuality and personal preference rather than traditional book reports, although they, too, are sometimes used.

(4) Each child visits the library at least twice a week.

(a) Once a week with the class and the teacher for book selection.

(b) Once in a small group for independently selected activities of his/her choice.

(5) Each teacher provides reading and literature-related activities in learning centers within the room to make independent and small group instruction more meaningful and individualized.

(6) Basal text instruction is presented in various ways:

(a) Total class sharing

(b) Small group formal instruction

(c) Curriculum related texts (math, science, etc.) for instruction in reading.

(7) The Captain's Reading Club was intiated about two years ago as a way of incorporating parent awareness and encouragement for independent reading.

(8) Community Read Alongs and Public Library Programs participation are encouraged.

Our present committee chairperson recently stated, "Joy is caught not taught." As I reflected on this I realized how important it is that we as teachers and parents serve to be good models for today's youths. We at West Vigo Elementary use every opportunity to teach a child both *How to read* as well as *To read.* Bulletin boards, hallway areas, art lessons, musical programs, films, plays, etc., are all an integral part of our present program.

We feel our program, while not perfect, is a step forward. Research completed last year indicated a significant gain in reading scores of a fourth grade class. Questionnaires randomly completed by selected staff, students, and parents were also positive.

Each year the committee evaluates, revises, and projects problem areas and program expansions that will help us attain our goal.

It has been an exciting and challenging four years. Not only have the boys and girls at West Vigo benefitted from the "EAS" program, but I have experienced professional growth that has enabled me to better serve both my colleagues and my students.

NOTES

[1]Lewis B. Smith, "Let's Talk Sense About Reading," *Instructor*, 89, no. 10 (May 1980), p. 38.

[2]Smith, p. 37.

Speakers Rexel Brown, David Memory, Mollie Dudgeon and Alice Reck

PART II: THE AFFECTIVE DIMENSION

Mollie Dudgeon

I agree with Mrs. Reck in indicating that the last four years at West Vigo Elementary School have been exciting and challenging years. I would add, too, that these last four years have been the most stimulating and satisfying years of my 26 years of teaching experience . . . mostly because of the professional and personal growth I've experienced as a result of my participation in the *EAS into Reading* program at WVES.

The three strands--enjoyment, affective and skills--cannot really be separated because each overlaps the other. My responsibility today is to tell you about the affective dimension, and you will see, as perhaps you did with the enjoyment dimension that Mrs. Reck presented, that this dimension is not pure but overlaps the others.

The major goal of the affective dimension is to develop and/or maintain in each child a positive self-concept, strengthening the child's feelings of personal esteem and adequacy, so that the child's cognitive and affective learning will be more efficient and lasting.

Many authorities agree that the prime factor in school success is high self-esteem. Both positive and negative feelings are a major part of each person's sense of *me*. Children value themselves to the degree that their feelings have been respected and valued by the important people in their lives. Sometimes children's feelings have not been recognized or accepted. They have learned that some of their feelings are *bad*, not worthy of respect. But if a child learns that his or her feelings are natural and human and that we reserve value judgment only for behavior, then self-esteem is strengthened. We teachers are important people in the lives of children, so we must show them that we recognize, accept and respect all of their feelings. The teacher who helps children to understand more about feelings improves the day-to-day learning environment, lays foundations for long-term success in school and life, and helps to create more humane social relationships.

To help children learn about their feelings we implemented direct affective training activities conducted by each classroom teacher on a regular schedule in each classroom. An overview of the year's schedule for the affective units includes:

Mollie Dudgeon is reading teacher at West Vigo Elementary School.

Sept/Oct:	All About Me
Nov:	What Makes Me Scared
Dec:	What Makes Me Happy
Jan:	What Makes Me Sad
Feb:	What Makes Me Lonely
Mar:	What Makes Me Mad at Me
Apr:	What Makes Me Mad at You
May:	I Like Me

Since the inception of "EAS" these topics have remained the same, however some of them have been switched about to better correlate with the holidays and events of certain months.

In September each child starts an *All About Me* folder, to which he/she adds (during each of the following months) at least one page that fits with the affective unit for the month. Each teaching unit is set up in three sections: rationale, page for *All About Me* folder, and activities from which to choose. Teachers evaluate each unit at the end of the month. This evaluation encourages teacher input and feedback, helps to verify that teachers are keeping themselves on task, and indicates growth and awareness in teachers.

Each spring the Attitude Assessment Survey is given to all students. The survey is available for use earlier in the school year if teachers so desire. Of significance to teachers as we analyzed composites by grade levels was the change in attitude shown on the statements "I like to do my workbook" and "I like to do ditto sheets or worksheets about reading." Children in 1st and 2nd grades still remained fairly positive in their responses to these statements, but there was a drastic and dramatic change to the negative in the responses from children in 3rd, 4th and 5th grades. We have yet to make a composite for the 1980 results to study and analyze to see if there is a trend toward more positive responses on some of these items.

One of our affective sub-goals emphasizes the need to communicate with parents positively; many times we as teachers communicate with parents only when there is a problem. Built into the skills dimension of "EAS" is the use of the EAS-O-Gram which notifies parents of each skill mastered. Children track their progress at school on these skills through use of a bubble chart. Parents are provided with the same chart at home so that they can track progress there as notified by the EAS-O-Grams.

Another sub-goal of the affective dimension is to seek and use classroom procedures which strengthen learning experiences and minimize the stigma of performing below grade level. As they teach reading skills, all teachers are encouraged to use a variety of materials with a great deal of emphasis placed on learning centers and other techniques which allow for flexibility in all student activities. The use

of learning centers allows students reinforcement on various difficulty levels of a particular skill or different skills simultaneously.

Our school counselor plays an important role in the affective dimension of "EAS." He makes regular visits to classrooms, often to discuss the theme for the month at the intermediate levels and with the Duso kit at the primary levels. The Duso kit from American Guidance Co. helps children understand, recognize and cope with their feelings through the use of pictures, discussion and puppetry. Our counselor also helps to lead parent discussion groups which meet regularly to discuss common problems of parenting. The core of the discussions center on the text, *Systematic Training for Effective Parenting* by Dinkmeyer and McKay, and several sessions are devoted to "Encouragement" and "How to Build Your Child's Confidence and Feelings of Worth."

Mrs. Reck and I have explained the enjoyment and affective dimensions of *EAS into Reading* at West Vigo Elementary School. We have touched lightly on the skills dimension also.

A few words of caution in closing: At this time when the push in our profession is toward accountability and a skills management system in reading whereby children are pre- and post-tested to see if they have mastered their reading skills, it is all too easy for us to place too much emphasis on skills at the expense of the enjoyment and affective dimensions. We must strive for a balance of the three dimensions. We must ask ourselves each day: Am I teaching this child to hate or to enjoy reading? The balance is a delicate one, and therein lies the challenge for each of us. Skills are extremely important, of course, but we don't want children to be burned-out on reading because we have failed in the enjoyment and affective dimensions. The challenge is ours, and as you address this challenge of keeping a delicate balance of all three dimensions--enjoyment, affective and skills--keep these words in mind: If you think you can, or if you think you can't, you are absolutely right.

MOTIVATING READING IN SECONDARY CLASSES

David Memory

During the last five years we have heard much discussion of a decline in the reading achievement of students in America's secondary schools. There is little doubt now that this alleged decline is a real one (Harnischfeger and Wiley, 1976). The nature of that decline, though, may surprise some observers of the education scene. Complaining employers who come in contact with recent high school graduates and dropouts might have us believe that the decline is centered among those who will not continue formal education beyond high school. The data show otherwise. In fact, the decline does not seem to apply to job-related and other survival reading skills (Gonder, 1976). Instead, the biggest drops in reading achievement appear to be among those students who have traditionally gone to college and even to graduate and professional schools. And those declines seem to be concentrated in the areas that might be considered the higher-level academic reading skills--skills related to inferential comprehension and critical reading (Gonder, 1976).

There is certainly much that teachers can do in the classroom to directly influence growth in these areas. But most improvement in higher-level reading skills comes mainly through extensive reading--reading that the students must do themselves. Even those basic reading skills which elementary teachers are so successful at teaching cannot be mastered simply through in-class activities. High school remedial reading teachers are quick to let their colleagues know that an hour a day in a reading class cannot solve the problems of seriously retarded readers. For all students there is an undiminishing need for reading outside the classroom.

Of course, teachers know that we cannot count on students, even the most conscientious ones, to recognize and act on that need independently. With many poor readers and non-academically-oriented students, it has always been difficult to motivate voluntary reading. Today some of those difficulties apply even with the proficient readers and those students who find schoolwork interesting and rewarding. This is true partly because teenagers now are lured by more alternative uses of time than were students in the past. Moreover, a substantial number of those alternatives seem relatively more attractive to many teenagers than did the alternatives years ago. There are the after-school and weekend jobs that pay for cars and entertainment. There are the television programs that seem to be increasingly aimed at teenagers with money to spend. And, like it or not, there are the alcohol and drugs that much of that extra money now buys. In short, schools and teachers

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David Memory is Assistant Professor of Secondary Education at Indiana State University.

today must compete with a more formidable assemblage of non-school activities and distractions. In every area of responsibility, it is easy for even mature adults to convince themselves to do only what has to be done. We cannot expect busy students to view school any differently.

If secondary teachers are to help halt and reverse the decline in reading achievement, they must at least try to make voluntary reading an attractive alternative for middle and high school students. What follows is a collection of many time-honored and a few new ideas for motivating voluntary reading in content-area classes.

Making Subject-Related Books and Magazines Available

Part of the task for content-area teachers is to convince students to give books and shorter selections a try. Regardless of how much available time and unsatiated interest a student has, he or she will not become wrapped up in a book or article without first starting it. And the potentially most popular books and magazines will never be opened by appreciative students if those reading materials stay hidden on library and bookstore shelves rarely if ever visited by busy students. Therefore, the first objective of the content-area teacher should be to have subject-related books and magazines actually available in the classroom. There should be books that treat subject-related topics in depth and high-interest books, easy-reading books, and popular magazines related to the subject.

This is important for several reasons. Many students are intensely interested in certain topics, or they can be made acutely interested through skillful teaching. With a few students this interest might motivate a lunch-hour visit to the library, but for many it will dissipate unused, if books and magazines are not immediately available in the classroom. Sometimes the interest is not generated so much by the topic as it is by the teacher. Coaches, band directors, and home ecomonics and industrial arts teachers are often admired by students who have no time for the recommendations of their English or history teachers. These staff members who are not traditionally considered at the heart of the reading program in a middle or high school can be just that for certain students. But they can be truly effective in that role only if they have subject-related books and magazines available right in the gym, the band room, or the home economics or industrial arts lab.

Some teachers might say that classroom libraries are possible only in wealthy schools with teacher-fearing students. That is not true. Admittedly, a reasonable amount of teacher effort and organization is required. But a big budget for supplementary materials is unnecessary, and the occasional loss of a book or magazine to an overeager reader or even to a vengeful student does not have to halt the efforts of a disillusioned teacher. There are many ways to build and maintain a

classroom library with little or no expenditure of school or personal funds. A content-area teacher can send to parents and community members a list of topics on which he or she needs books and magazines. Some teachers have been so successful with such book drives that they have had to share their bounty throughout the school in order to keep enough room in their classes to move and teach. It is also possible to obtain discarded paperbacks and magazines from distributors. This is certainly not an adequate source for a whole school, but for many teachers it is a renewable resource that should not remain untapped. If these two options do not produce some of the specific titles that a teacher wants, the school and public libraries remain. Most of them will lend collections of subject-related books for classroom use. If the teacher does not want the worry of keeping track of expensive hardbacks from a library, it may be possible to purchase a small collection of paperbacks with school funds. A well-planned list with titles, authors, publishers, and prices may convince a principal or supervisor that a teacher has the interest and energy to deserve a hundred dollars or so of uncommitted funds. Once a small classroom library is started through one or a combination of these approaches, it is always possible to supplement and maintain the collection by turning it into a swapping library: A student who wants to borrow a book has to put another one in its place. In this way the number of books available in the classroom stays the same, but the selection is constantly changing.

Providing Appealing Information About Subject-Related Books

The content-area teacher should also have available in the classroom a wide variety of appealing information about subject-related books that can be borrowed from the school or public library or that can be purchased inexpensively. Information of this type is important both for teachers who have been unable or unwilling to develop a classroom library and for those who simply want to appeal to the interests and meet the needs of students who are ready to go beyond what the classroom library has to offer. If these students read a convincing publisher's blurb or a positive review of a book, they might be motivated to track it down in a library or even order a copy from a paperback distributor.

There are many ways to gather appealing information of this type. The several youth-oriented book clubs provide promotional materials designed specifically to generate interest in books and make their purchase convenient and relatively inexpensive. Scholastic has TAB and Campus book clubs for junior and senior high students. Xerox has Read and Senior. And Troll has one club for that whole age range. Unfortunately, few of the books offered by these clubs are closely related to science, social studies, or other content areas. To find inexpensive nonfiction paperbacks of interest, students may need to examine directly the catalogs of publishers and distributors. This can be an effective option since many of these companies provide annotated catalogs with titles grouped or indexed by subject. And

many of these catalogs are obviously designed to sell books, not simply to inform potential buyers. Book jackets are designed to do the same thing. Therefore, another way to generate student interest in specific books is to collect and display or keep on file the discarded jackets of subject-related books available in the school or public library.

Of course, some students want to know more than an order form, catalog, or book jacket provides, or they do not trust the publishers. For those students, appealing sources of information can be book reviews and critical essays clipped or copied from magazines. Or those students might like the varied summary comments that are published in *Book Review Digest*. To take advantage of these sources, the teacher needs to maintain a list of potentially effective and well liked supplementary books and search out reviews and reviewer comments that might convince students to borrow or buy books that interest them. Some students, however, do not care what professional reviewers think. Instead, they trust the opinions of their peers. For these students a source of convincing views about subject-related books may be reviews and critiques written by members or former members of the class. When these are turned in as book reports or other assignments, they can be saved and made available (with the authors' permission) for examination by other students.

Showing That the Teacher and Other Adults Consider Voluntary Reading Important

Regardless of the number of books and book reviews available in a classroom, many students will remain unimpressed and unmoved if they do not feel that people they admire consider voluntary reading important. We all know that teenagers are quick to notice inconsistencies in the statements of adults. We know, too, that they rarely overlook practices that fail to support preachments. Content-area teachers who want their students to do voluntary reading must provide convincing evidence that adults value and do such reading themselves.

There are a number of ways that teachers can get support from other adults in providing such evidence. When teachers have guest speakers, they can encourage the speakers to refer to books and articles related to the topics of their talks. Most speakers are invited because of the interest they can generate. Asking them to mention things to read is one way to capitalize on that interest. In a less direct way nationally known adults can testify to the value of voluntary reading. For four years (1971 to 1975) each issue of *The Reading Teacher* included a statement by an athlete, an entertainer, a politician, or some other famous American about his or her belief in reading. Such statements can be posted to remind students that many of the people they admire value reading and have taken the time to encourage young people to read widely.

A somewhat risky, but potentially more effective, approach is to communicate to parents the importance of encouraging reading outside

school. Unfortunately, some parents have little influence that they can use with their teenage children. And others might be prone to exert inappropriate pressure that could even cause a decrease in voluntary reading. Nevertheless, there are things that teachers can do to guide the cooperation of parents. Teachers can give parents of less able readers information about the many newly available, inexpensive high-interest/low-vocabulary books. If these parents do not feel they should have to buy books for their children, they might put needed pressure on the school administration or the local library to make more suitable books available for poor readers. For the parents of able readers, teachers can provide information about books that could be purchased inexpensively or borrowed by the students interested in studying a topic in depth, possibly in preparation for a college major. Similarly, teachers can give parents information about subject-related magazines to which parents or students could subscribe. Of course, to make these efforts effective, teachers should emphasize to the parents the need to demonstrate their belief in the value of voluntary reading through their own reading habits.

Even with strong direct and indirect support from other adults, content-area teachers will have little success in motivating voluntary reading if they do not themselves read and make their beliefs in reading known (Rieck, 1977). This means, for example, that teachers should talk informally about books, stories, and articles they are reading or have read. They should keep books or magazines at their desks and read during free moments. Some teachers might also make an impact by occasionally reading aloud to students from selections that the teachers obviously enjoy and can read orally in a convincing way. This approach can backfire, however, if the teacher interprets the selection poorly or chooses unwisely and does not demonstrate appreciation for what he or she is reading. Forethought and preparation are essential.

Demonstrating Interest in the Reading That Students Do

To complement his or her own belief in reading, the content-area teacher should let students know that he or she is interested in the reading they do. With some students a general classroom atmosphere that is maximally conducive to reading is still not sufficient. Some students need to feel that their teachers are concerned about them as individual readers (Bruckerhoff, 1977). Others have been so frustrated by or so uninterested in what they have been forced to read that they are unimpressed by testimonials. They need to know why a certain book or story or article will be any different from the many others that teachers in the past have assumed they would like and have required them to read.

One way for content-area teachers to prepare for these reluctant and resistant readers is to learn as much as possible about their students' interests in order to suggest suitable books, stories, and articles. Unfortunately for teachers, students do not fit into neatly

predictable categories related to interests. Sex and age narrow somewhat the range of interests that a certain student can be expected to have, but even these variables may be losing some of their predictive value as forces now operating in society move through the teenage population. Nevertheless, certain generalizations can be helpful to content-area teachers. Possibly the best presentation of documented information about teenage reading interests can be found in Carlsen's (1980) *Books and the Teen-age Reader.* This information can at least give teachers ideas about where to look more closely for topics and books to capture the interest of specific students. However, Carlsen's or any other's generalizations should not be accepted unquestioningly as the basis for trying to motivate reluctant readers. More detailed information is needed, and such information is obtained best from the students themselves. There are differing viewpoints about how such information should be gathered. A good way for a teacher to learn how to use one or more of the several interest assessment techniques is to study the appropriate section in one or more of the current textbooks on reading in the content areas (Burmeister, 1978; Karlin, 1977; Lamberg and Lamb, 1980; and Smith, Smith, and Mikulecky, 1978).

Knowing the interests of specific students is no guarantee, however, that teacher recommendations will be well received by reluctant or resistant readers. With many of these students, the act of reading itself is not motivating. If these students are to make the decision to use some of their own time to read a teacher-suggested book, story, or article, then they need to know how that use of time might benefit them. Smith, Smith, and Mikulecky (1978) have listed some of the varied reasons that students might choose to read a book or shorter selection. Some students might be simply curious to learn something new. Some, particularly older students and males, might want to learn how to do something. Bright and literarily inclined students might be influenced by the prestige involved in having read a certain critically acclaimed book. Other students, including less able and less motivated readers, might be interested in the social status they can achieve with their peers by having read a specific popular book, story or article. Though it is not always a healthy motivation, some students like the escape and vicarious experiences that reading can provide. Some teenagers want to reinforce present attitudes or cultivate present interests by reading. Some find satisfaction in being able to identify with characters in books and stories. And some students have learned to use reading as an aid to emotional and social growth. As with reading interests, though, reading motives vary from one student to another and even from time to time for specific students. Therefore, there is no easy formula to predict what approach will work in any one situation. Careful observation of individual students and informal discussions with them are necessary for learning what might motivate certain reluctant readers to pick up and eventually finish certain books or shorter selections. If the initial recommendations of a content-area teacher are not based on a realistic view of the motivations of a

specific student, then those recommendations might lead that student to again conclude that his or her teacher simply does not understand and does not deserve to be a guide.

Of course, we can hope that few students will react this way. We can hope, rather, that most students will accept the recommendations of their teachers and will read and even enjoy the selections they suggest. Or we can hope that students will respond to the supportive environment created by their teachers and will select their own books, stories, and articles for voluntary reading. Regardless of why a student chooses to read a certain selection, it is important that the teacher let him or her know that the effort is recognized. Content-area teachers should ask students informally about the books, stories, and articles they have been reading. Without being patronizing, they should offer justified praise for commendable efforts. And, above all, they should demonstrate respect for honest reactions to selections read. Students, particularly those who are not often motivated to read, should not have to feel that their tastes or views are immature. After all, even professional literary critics can have diametrically opposite opinions about a work of literature. Teachers should try to train students in the sensibilities of literary appreciation but not during a voluntary reading program.

Including During Class Time Some Activities Related to Voluntary Reading

Making magazines and supplementary books available in the content-area classroom and encouraging students to borrow them can go far toward motivating reading outside school. However, with some students the teacher must take the additional step of actually using class time for activities related to voluntary reading. Of course, content-area teachers cannot be expected to set aside major segments of time for free reading. Moreover, when brief periods have been allotted for unstructured recreational reading in regular secondary classes, the consequences have not always been more reading and more positive attitudes toward reading (Minton, 1980). The role of the content-area teacher is more complicated than that of a fellow reader. Structured class activities may be necessary to stimulate and support voluntary reading. And creative techniques may be needed to provide at least social reinforcement for the reading done. Such efforts may require more time and thought than some teachers are prepared to give. But in the minds of many busy students, suggestions of teachers who are unwilling to back up reading recommendations with commitments of class time may not deserve to be followed.

There are several ways in which school time can be devoted to free reading. One approach is to occasionally allow students to read whatever they wish in class. Since some may choose to do required textbook assignments, it may be necessary to give extra credit for the reading of unassigned books, stories, and articles. This form of reward can

be justified in view of the increasing time demands which begin during the middle school years (Heathington, 1979). If extra credit is given, the students should be required to demonstrate that they have read what they claim to have read. Otherwise, a free reading program of this type can become a farce in students' eyes. In one form or another, this means book reports. They may be short objective tests, journals, chapter-by-chapter comments, or organized summaries or critiques. They could even be some type of creative oral report or artistic creation. Several teachers who have faced the dilemma of monitoring independent reading have described their solutions to this problem in journal articles (Carlin, 1961; Carroll, 1967; Fraim, 1973; Nichols, 1978; and Whisler, 1973). These suggestions can serve as guides for content-area teachers seeking fresh approaches to book reports. In any case, some type of report should be required, alternative formats should be suggested, and each student should be allowed to choose which format he or she will follow. Unfortunately, some reluctant readers hate book reporting so much that extra credit with this stipulation is not a real inducement. For them some other motivator is needed. One option is to plan field trips and other special activities and then provide reading materials so that students can prepare for those activities or do follow-up reading (Sartain, 1973). Some action-oriented projects can be so interesting to students that even the resistant readers will pick up a book or article if it offers a way to make the project more rewarding. Or the reading materials may allow students to pursue an interest generated or heightened by the project. With students motivated in this way, free reading becomes purposeful, and extra credit and book reports are unnecessary.

Another way to use class time to motivate voluntary reading is to require certain types of reading which are better liked than textbook assignments and which, therefore, may stimulate students to do more reading on their own. For example, content-area teachers can occasionally include the reading of a popular book or article as a class assignment and deal with it in a manner designed to maximize appreciation and enjoyment of the selection. This is one way to remind reluctant readers that interesting reading materials do exist. In addition, such assignments can be used to give guidance in how to enjoy subject-related books. To accomplish this, the teacher should pick books that are proven favorites with students and, in discussing the books, show how they are related to the interests and recognized needs of the students. In addition, it is important to emphasize reading for appreciation and forego the urge to evaluate students by testing recall and understanding. Of course, some content-area teachers choose to rely heavily on the reading of articles and supplementary books as enrichment activities. In this approach, often called the unit procedure, evaluation of student effort is necessary. Nevertheless, this procedure can still be used effectively to motivate voluntary reading. To help insure the success of this approach, the teacher should provide a list of books and articles related to the topic being studied

and should let the students choose the specific selections they will read. The reason for giving lists is not to limit self-selection but, rather, to eliminate the frustration of students unskilled in library use and to call attention to selections that have proven popular in the past.

Using class time to let students know that interesting and rewarding reading materials do exist is certainly one way to stimulate voluntary reading, but some students need or desire more than the rewards of reading itself. They respond to the social reinforcement that can come by sharing their views about what they have read. In contrast with viewing films and television, reading, particularly voluntary reading, can easily be a very solitary pastime. It is not uncommon for a student to read a book during his or her free time and then find no one else who has read it. This leaves the student unable to compare thoughts about the book and feel the satisfaction of knowing that someone else has similar views. One way that content-area teachers can provide for this type of sharing is to schedule small-group sessions when community members come in to discuss specific books with students who have recently read those books (Davis, 1975). If students know that a certain book will be discussed during class time on a certain day, they have an incentive to use some of their spare time to read it and prepare to contribute to the session. Even if it is impossible to gather readers of the same book, students can still be allowed to communicate their thoughts with classmates. Content-area teachers can provide time for pairs or small groups of students to discuss books, stories, and articles they have read on shared topics. Some students may be so interested in expressing their views that they would be willing to give brief reports to the whole class about what they have read. Such reports can be particularly effective if they are designed to convince other students to read the selection being reviewed. Regardless of the specific techniques chosen, it is important that middle school and high school teachers devote some class time to activities that allow students to share their feelings about the voluntary reading they have opted to do. In a sense, these students have chosen an activity that is little rewarded by their peers and have foregone diversions that will remain attractive alternatives in the future. These students deserve to be allowed to communicate their thoughts about what they have read.

Conclusion

Content-area teachers who consider these suggestions for motivating voluntary reading will recognize that they are not effortless approaches either for the teacher or for the student. Neither are they certain solutions to the decline in reading achievement among teenagers. Nevertheless, approaches such as these offer real rewards for teachers and students alike. And without efforts in this area, even the most systematic programs for reading improvement in middle schools and high schools can achieve only partial and fleeting success.

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Speakers Wayne Aller, Richard Biberstine and Susan Johnston

HOW PEOPLE PROCESS COMPLEX SENTENCES: DATA FROM COMPUTER CONTROLLED EXPERIMENTS

Wayne K. Aller

First, let me say that I am not entirely certain that the paper I am about to give is appropriate for the theme of this conference--"Reading: Focus for *Enjoyment*"--for, as you shall soon see, the reading material I have been using in my research to date is not very enjoyable. However, since it seems clear that to enjoy the process of reading one must be able to comprehend what one is reading, then my paper *is* relevant to this conference's theme, for I wish to report some of my research into how we process complex sentences when asked to read them for comprehension. While reading difficulty is a function of things such as familiarity with vocabulary and with the sequence of events (what Roger Schank and Robert Abelson call *scripts*), it is also a function of syntactic complexity.

Complex sentences are structures that are built up of simpler sentences through the recursive operations of *co-ordination* and *embedding*. In co-ordination, the constituent sentences (termed "clauses" when they become part of a larger sentence) are linked together by a co-ordinating conjunction (e.g., *and, but, or, either . . . or, both . . . and, and then, or else*), with neither sentence being syntactically dependent on the other. In embedding, one sentence (the "embedded sentence") is subordinated to--i.e., serves as a constituent in--the other (the "matrix sentence"). These seem to be very common, universal, linguistic devises--all known languages using both. Furthermore, all known languages seem to use two types of subordinating devises: *complementation* and *relativization*.

Now, my major interest over the past 5 or 6 years has been in how children acquire the capacity to both comprehend and produce such complex sentences, how they internalize the generative rules of these structures. And while I have done considerable research on children's acquisition of complex complement structures both in English and Arabic, it is to my research in the acquisition of relative clause constructions that I wish to focus your attention today.

There are four basic types of relative clause constructions in English. These are shown in Table 1. They differ in three ways. First, note that in sentences 1 and 2 the relative clause, whose beginning is marked by the relative pronoun "that," is in the middle of the matrix clause. It is said to be center-embedded (CE).

Wayne Aller is Professor of Psychology at Indiana State University.

Table 1

Examples of Relative Clause Sentence Types

	Example Sentences	Sentence Characteristics
(1)	The dog that jumps over the pig bumps into the lion.	CE[a], SVO[b], SS[c], //[d]
(2)	The lion that the horse bumps into jumps over the giraffe.	CE , OSV , SO , ##
(3)	The pig bumps into the horse that jumps over the giraffe.	RB , SVO , OS , ##
(4)	The dog stands on the horse that the giraffe jumps over.	RB , OSV , OO , //

[a]This indicates whether the relative clause is center-embedded (CE) or right-branching (RB).

[b]This indicates the word order of the relative clause (S=subject, V=verb, O=object).

[c]The first letter designates the function of the coreferential noun phrase (NP) in the main clause, the second its function in the relative clause.

[d]This indicates whether the coreferential NPs have the same (//) or different (##) grammatical functions in their respective main and relative clauses.

In sentences 3 and 4, however, the relative clause is at the end of the matrix clause. These are referred to as right-branching (RB) relatives.

Second, note that the word order in the relative clauses of 1 and 3 is subject-verb-object (SVO); i.e., the relative pronoun plays the role of subject in these sentences. In contrast, the relative pronoun plays the role of object of the relative clause verb in sentences 2 and 4, thus producing an object-subject-verb (OSV) word order in these relative clauses.

Third, notice that the grammatical role played by the relativized noun in the relative clause is sometimes the same as the role which that noun plays in the matrix clause (sentences 1 & 4) and sometimes

it is different (sentences 2 & 3). In sentence 1, the relativized noun is the subject (S) of matrix sentence ("the *dog* bumps into the lion") and it is also the subject of the relative clause ("the *dog* (that) jumps over the pig"). We can symbolize this sentence as an "SS" sentence, the first letter designating the function of the coreferential NP in the matrix clause, the second letter designating its function in the relative clause. Looking at sentence 2 we see that the relativized noun *lion* is the subject (S) of the matrix sentence, but is the object (O) of the relative clause ("The horse bumps into the *lion*"). Thus, this sentence would be symbolized SO.

These three ways in which relative clause constructions differ are interesting to psycholinguists and those interested in reading because it seems reasonable to assume that some are more complicated to process than others. The noted Berkley developmental psycholinguist, Dan Slobin, has argued (1971) that since any child quickly learns any language to which he is exposed, it is reasonable to expect that there should be universally valid language processing strategies utilized by children in acquiring language and by adults in processing language.

Using cross-linguistic acquisition data, largely from production studies, and some data from adult language processing studies, Slobin proposed a set of universal strategies or *operating principles* for language acquisition and processing. One of these operating strategies is to *avoid interruptions* of the major constituents in a sentence. Another operating principle is to *avoid rearrangement* of linguistic units. These principles can be stated as formal, testable hypotheses.

Amy Sheldon (1974) did just this (See Figure 1). Her *interruption hypothesis* predicts that the center-embedded relative constructions should be harder to process than the right-branching constructions, because in the former the relative clauses interrupt the constituents of the matrix sentence, while in the latter they don't. Her *word order hypothesis* predicts that sentences 2 & 4, where the word order on the relative clause has been rearranged from SVO to OSV, should be harder to process than sentences 1 & 3, where the word order in the relative clause is the standard SVO. Finally, Sheldon's own hypothesis the *parallel function hypothesis*, which she claims is based on more broad perceptual/cognitive principles, states that those constructions in which the coreferential nouns (the relativized noun and the relative pronoun) have the same grammatical role should be easier to process than those where they have different grammatical roles. Thus, sentences 1 & 4 (SS & OO) should be easier than 2 & 3 (SO & OS).

Table 2

The Three Orthogonal Sets of Predictions

Interruption Hypothesis

easy:	OS and OO	(right-branching)
hard:	SS and SO	(self-embedded)

Word Order Hypothesis

easy:	SS and OS	(word order in the relative clause is SVO)
hard:	SO and OO	(word order in the relative clause is not SVO)

Parallel Function Hypothesis

easy:	SS and OO	(relativized NP has the same function in main and relative clauses)
hard:	SO and OS	(relativized NP has different functions in main and relative clauses)

Thus we have three orthogonal sets of hypotheses, leading to predictions about which sentences will be easier to process, and thus correctly comprehended at younger ages. Sheldon used what I will call an *enactment procedure* in which children were instructed to act out with the appropriate toys who did what to whom after being read each sentence. She tested 33 children, 11 each at three age groups. The mean ages were 4.0, 4.8, and 5.3. Three different sentences for each of the four types were presented randomly to each child. Her results are shown in Figure 1. There was no support for the interruption hypothesis. SS & SO (interrupted) sentences were actually (non-significantly) *easier* for children to comprehend than OS & OO (non-interrupted). Neither was there any overall support for the *word order hypothesis* (although children, mean aged 5.3, comprehended SVO orders better than the rearranged OSV orders). Sheldon did find strong support for her *parallel function hypothesis*, however. The SS & OO (parallel function) sentences were comprehended more accurately than were the SO & OS (non-parallel function) sentences.

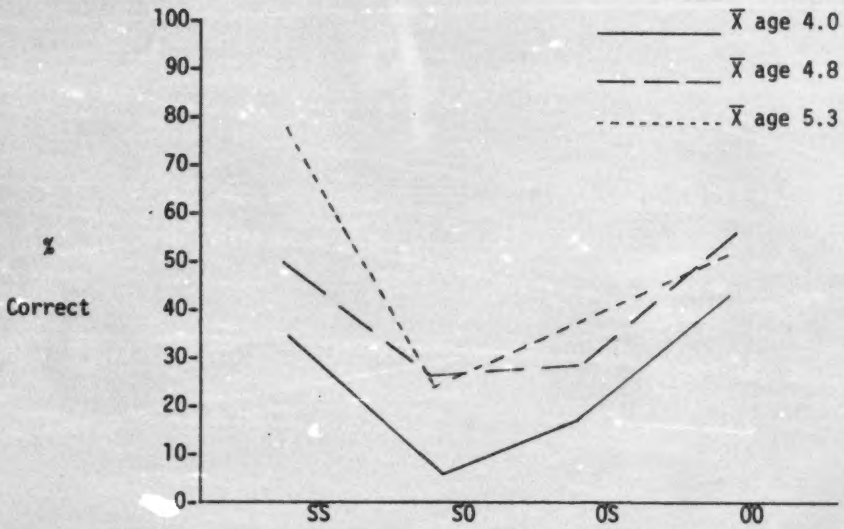

Figure 1. Percent correct comprehension of four types of relative clause constructions by three age groups (Sheldon, 1974)

My wife, Sonia, and I (1979), after learning from Sheldon that she pretested all her children and excluded from testing all those that did not try to act out the events in both the matrix and relative clauses, decided to replicate her study but not preselect the children. We used her exact sentences, procedures and age groups, but had 12 children per group instead of 11. Our results, shown in Figure 2, are essentially like hers--only the *parallel function hypothesis* is supported.

Stanley Legum (1975) using the same enactment procedures, but with four examples of each sentence type and with older kids (mean ages of 6.1, 7.0 and 8.1) found results similar to Sheldon's--support for the *parallel function hypothesis* but not for the *interruption hypothesis*, but he also found support for the *word order hypothesis*.

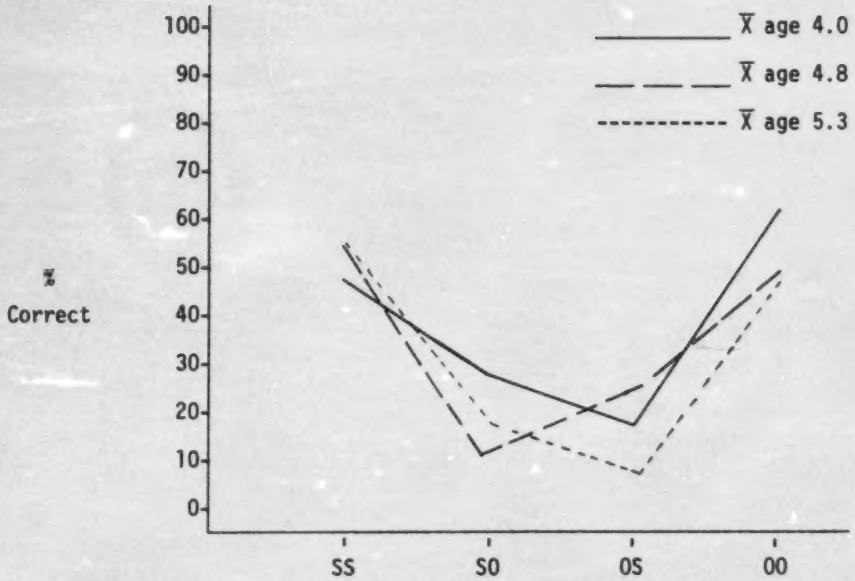

Figure 2. Percent correct comprehension of four types of relative clause constructions by three age groups (Aller, Aller, & Trover, 1979)

I might mention that two other studies, one with French speaking children by Sheldon (1977[b]) and the other with Arabic speaking children by Sonia Aller (1978), have also provided strong evidence in support of the *word order hypothesis*. In addition, Sonia Aller's study revealed that center-embedded, interrupted, relative constructions were *much easier* for Arabic speaking children to comprehend than were uninterrupted constructions. There had been a trend in this direction in the English studies, but her study clearly shows that Slobin is wrong about this so-called *universal operating principle*. Sonia argues, compellingly I believe, using data from the psycholinguist John Limber (1976) and the linguist John Ross (1971), that there is a universal primacy for modifying matrix subjects before matrix objects. And since center-embedded relatives modify the matrix subject they might well be easier to process.

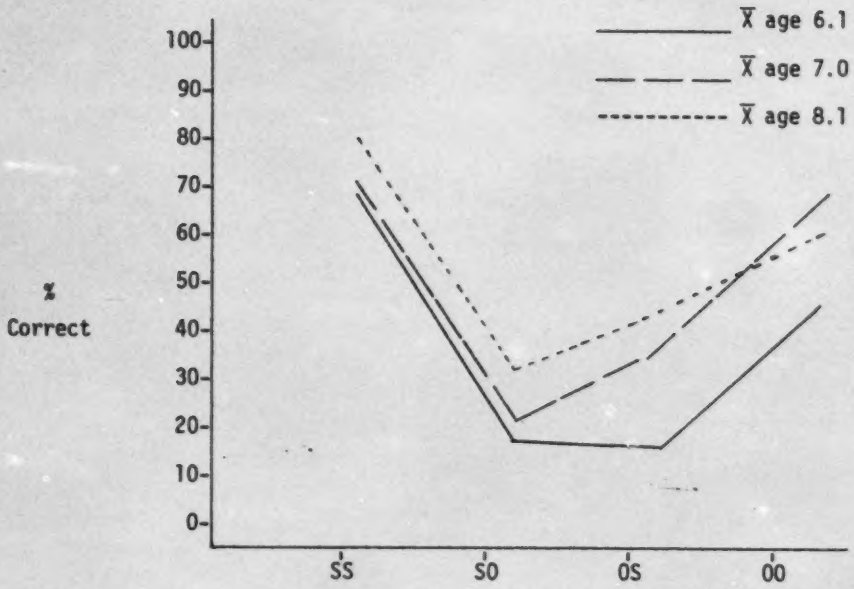

Figure 3. Percent correct comprehension of four types of relative clause constructions by three age groups (Legum, 1975)

The data I have considered thus far have all come from children. If the operating principles spelled out by Slobin are, as he suggests, not only valid for children's language acquisition but also for adult language processing, then adults should find sentences which violate these principles harder to process than those sentences which conform to the principles. That is, adult English speakers should find parallel function sentences (or SVO word orders) easier to process than non-parallel function sentences (or OSV word orders).

Sheldon (1977[a]) used 49 adult English speakers in a study with 20 examples each of the four basic types of relative clause constructions. After each sentence the subject was asked two questions about the sentence, one about the matrix clause and one about the relative clause, and the answers were scored for correctness. For example the subject might be read the SS sentence, "The cook that saw the boy liked the poet," then, 3 seconds later be asked, "Who likes whom?" Then three seconds after answering aloud, the subject would be asked, "Who saw whom?" Figure 4 shows the results.

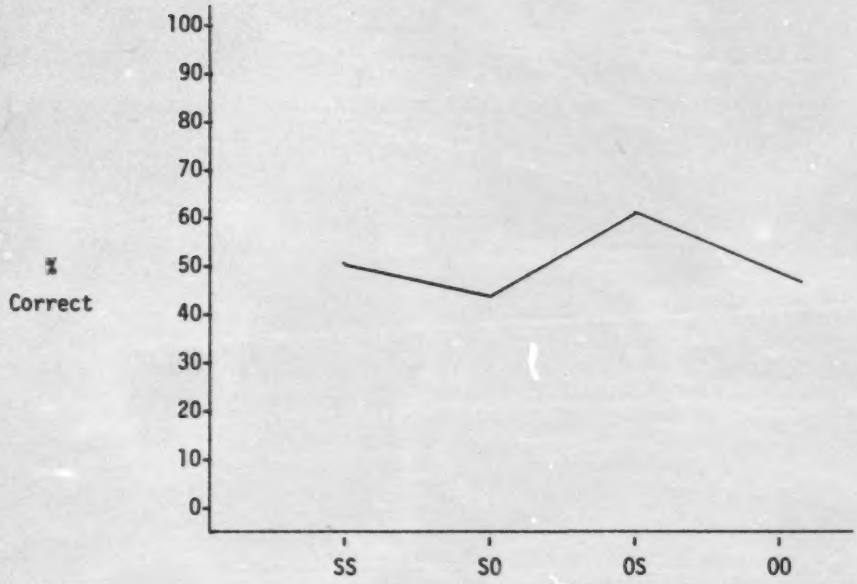

Figure 4. Percent correct processing of four types of relative clause construction by 49 adults (Sheldon, 1977)

Note that the pattern is *very* different from that exhibited by children. Parallel function is not a factor in the processing task. There is, however, a strong word order effect. The SS & OS sentences where the word order of the relative clauses is SVO is much easier than the SO & OO sentences, where the word order is the rearranged OSV. I might add that interrupted sentences (SS & SO) were significantly harder to process than non-interrupted (OS & OO). Why this very different pattern of results for adults as compared with children?

In an effort to answer this question I decided to use a technique which would provide a fine-grain, word-by-word analysis of the sentence processing task. This, at last, brings us to reading. I use a DEC PDP-8 computer, on-line, to present the sentences, one word at a time. Subjects sit in front of a CRT monitor and, when they are ready to start, they press a lever below the screen. This presents the first word of the sentence which the computer has randomly selected from the set of sentences in its memory. The second press of the key replaces the first word with the second word. The third press of the key replaces the second word with the third word, and so on. The computer

records how long subjects hold each word on the screen. The underlying reasoning is that in this real-time sentence reading task, more time will be required at points in the sentence where the processing task is more difficult. Thus, averaging "reading" times at each word position within each type of relative construction should enable us to see where in each sentence the most complex information processing is going on.

The data I will report today come from 9 adults, ISU students enrolled in General Psychology during the 1978-79 school year. Each subject "read" through 16 examples each of the four basic types of relative constructions.[1] The computer sequenced these 64 sentences in an order uniquely randomized for each subject after giving each subject eight practice sentences. The subjects were run under *semantic processing* task instructions. This task required subjects to respond *true* or *false* by pressing a toggle switch right or left when presented with an SVO proposition made up from the three nouns and two verbs of the proceding relative construction. For example, the proposition from the SO sentence "The elk that the deer tripped chased the moose" might be "The elk tripped the deer" which is false. (The direction of pushing the toggle switch for true vs. false was counterbalanced left/right, right/left across subjects.) Instructions were balanced for speed/accuracy; i.e., subjects were told to pace themselves through the sentences as fast as possible without decreasing accuracy and to be as sure as possible that their performance on the task following the sentence(s) was correct.

The results of the study are pictured in Figure 5.

Results of a repeated measures ANOVA indicated a significant word position effect ($p<.0001$) and a significant word position by type of relative clause construction interaction ($p<.0001$). Preplanned comparisons revealed that the final word in the clause had a significantly longer processing time than the mean of the words preceeding it ($p<.0001$). The effect was greatest at the end of center-embedded clauses. The ANOVA also revealed a significantly greater processing time ($p<.02$) at the end of clauses with OSV word order than at the end of those with SVO word order. The average processing time at the end of the relative clause in the center-embedded SO sentences (with OSV word order) was 340 milliseconds longer than the corresponding processing time for the SS sentences (with SVO word order). The difference between the right-branching pairs was 205 milliseconds, with the OSV-word-order OO sentences requiring more terminal processing than the SVO-word-order OS sentences.

Two things are thus clear. First, our college student readers take extra time at the end of clauses, particularly center embedded ones, to decode the meaning of the clauses. Second, they take extra

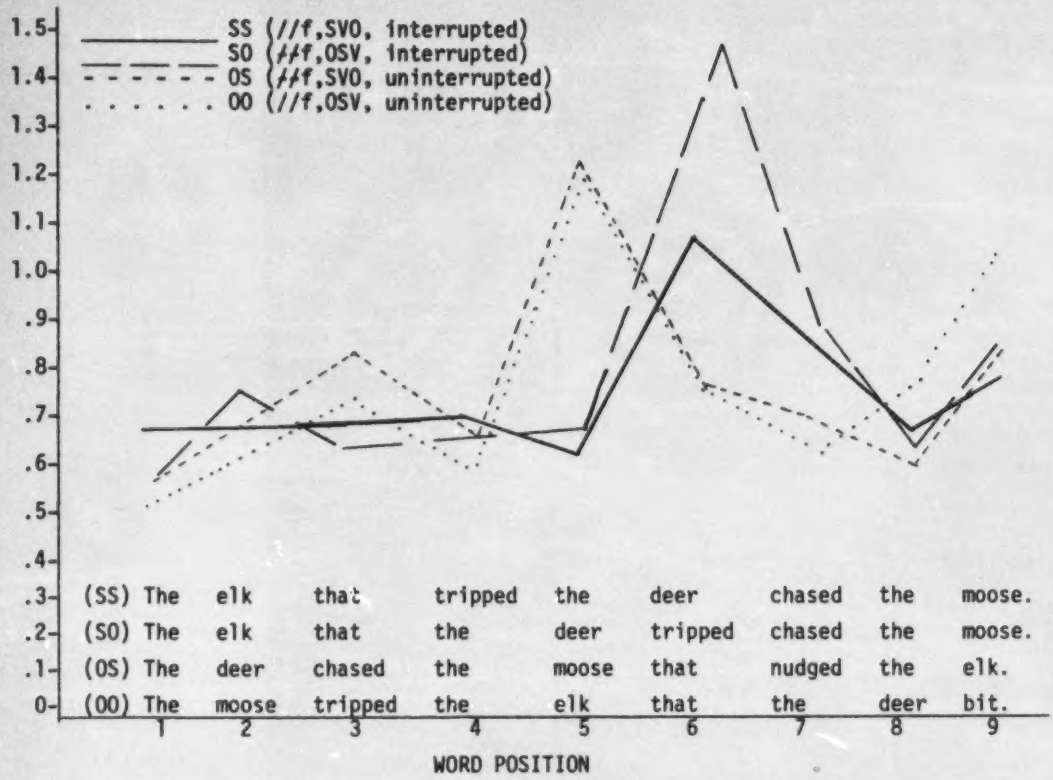

Figure 5. Mean word-by-word self-presentation times for four types of restrictive relative clause constructions under a semantic processing task.

time to decode OSV-word-order clauses compared to SVO-word-order clauses. This latter fact is no doubt due to the extra time required to rearrange the words back to their canonical, propositional order.

It is entirely possible that good reading comprehenders are those who take this extra time to return clauses to their canonical form, whereas poor reading comprehenders may not. I am currently beginning data collection to investigate this possibility, looking at the reading time patterns of 4th and 8th graders. I hope also that by looking at these time patterns in younger children to be able to determine at what age children's overall patterns start to look like adult patterns and thereby shed light on the strange and disparate findings reported by Sheldon for adults as compared to her and others' findings for children on comprehensibility.

NOTE

[1]Three of seven nouns, all large herbivorous mammals (elk, sheep, deer, cow, moose, goat, and cow), were combined randomly (without replacement) with two of five action verbs (chased, hit, tripped, nudged, bumped) to form the sentences.

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ENJOYMENT OF READING THROUGH LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE

Richard D. Biberstine

There are many activities in our lives that are rewarding, pleasurable, and fulfilling that we repeat as often as our schedule permits. There are other activities that bring frustration, anxiety and pain that we avoid if at all possible. These two statements can be said about readers in just about any classroom one would choose to sample. This would be due to both the process and product of reading.

There are many children that master the process of reading quite early in their school years and go on to find vast reservoirs of pleasurable reading at their disposal. Therefore, we have in this group, children who are motivated to continue this activity because the activity itself is rewarding.

Unfortunately there is another group of children in the classrooms of America that perceives the instruction in reading quite differently. These are those children who struggle with the process of reading and fail to achieve the pleasurable products from reading. In this second group of children we find two major reading problems.

1. The first problem includes all those children who cannot read. For these the process of reading remains overwhelming and the product of reading is largely unattainable.

2. The second problem includes all those who can read but avoid it whenever possible. These have struggled through the process, for whatever reasons, but still avoid reading whenever possible.

Both of these problems in reading can be attributed partially to the lack of enjoyment in reading. The first group lost out in mastering the process while the second failed to use the process to attain an enjoyable product.

In the not too distant past, our schools have been criticized because of the frustrations that they have allowed to be placed upon children. We have seen phrases like "grim, joyless environments," and "children suffer agony in the classroom" and "do not come close to reaching their potential." While these criticisms often come from

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Richard Biberstine is Professor of Elementary Education at Indiana State University.

people who have not expended a great portion of their lives in trying to create the *Utopian classroom*, they have exposed a sensitive nerve for most teachers. A great challenge for diagnostic teachers is to make learning enjoyable to those children who have the most difficulty.

It is not my purpose to indicate that all the answers to this problem have been found or that a prescriptive kit is available for each child that struggles with the process of learning to read. It will be our purpose to look at the language experience approach and suggest some ways it can bring enjoyment into the elementary classroom.

Language Experience is an approach to reading instruction that focuses on the language and experiences of the learner. Its philosophy has been expressed as follows:

> What I can think about
> I can talk about
> What I can say, I can write
> or someone can write for me
> What I can write I can read.
> I can read what I write, and
> What others write for me to read.[1]

This very statement indicates one of the enjoyments derived from this approach. It emphasizes what the learner can do rather than what he cannot. The frustrated reader needs teachers who can provide real successes for him. He needs to have the opportunity to find enjoyment in successful encounters in reading. The following suggestions should be used in bringing enjoyment to children in any reading approach and are especially applicable to the Language Experience Approach.

1. Choose content that brings value or satisfaction to the learner. Since the child chooses the experiences he wishes to place in writing, they are obviously those that are of most interest to him. Even as adults we use language to convey the parts of our experiences that are most interesting, rewarding and important. We receive satisfaction in relating these experiences to others. In cases where the content is prescribed solely by the need to cover pages in a given textbook, this satisfaction may be missing.

Children also find their own experiences interesting and enjoyable for using language in both oral and written expression. Whether it be an experience sentence or story or an experience chart reflecting a group experience, the content is enjoyable to those who share in it.

2. Convey the content in the concepts and language that are understood by the child. There are children today trying to read stories written in language that they cannot handle and expressing

concepts they do not understand. In any approach the reading material should be related to the experiential background of the child and is written in the language of the child.

3. Choose at least part of the content from the options that are most acceptable to the child. Children's interests are often disregarded when textbooks become the sole source of reading material. The Individualized Approach provides self-selection as one of its essential characteristics. The Language Experience Approach seems to offer the most acceptable option in that the individual child chooses the most enjoyable of his own experiences. He is not reading the material that has been written by some unknown author. He is reading his own material that he has authored to share with his class. That makes it a more desirable option.

4. Provide an environment that is free of threat, frustration and tension. The child who has problems with reading already carries a heavy load of frustration and tension. He needs to find relief from this load.

In many cases, classrooms have an environment that contains subtle comparison and competition, has no instructional value for the problem reader, and actually makes his tensions even more intense.

When every child has to read a given number of books, cover a given number of pages, or participate in procedures that expose his weaknesses rather than his strengths, frustration and tension will increase.

5. Provide maximal chances of success with minimal chances of failure. The problem reader has had many failures in reading. Many of these failures are because of unfortunate hereditary and environmental factors. We must make sure that we provide instruction for children when they can succeed. One author estimates that from twenty-five to over thirty-three percent of our school children are reading material that inhibits rather than enhances their reading success. The concepts are too difficult and the language is not understood. In these cases the use of inappropriate materials is actually creating blockages that prevent the child from reaching his potential. These blockages guarantee failure.

One teacher said,"I feel I must help each child to be successful in some way every day." This goal will cause teachers to seek out material that is appropriate and enjoyable. It will cause them to be more concerned with the child's attitudes related to learning. Language Experience gives the child an opportunity to use his own understanding vocabulary and experiences as a starting point for successes in reading.

6. Assist the child in achieving freedom from disabling deficiencies in skill development. Language Experience does not have its own skill development program but skills are developed as needed by a diagnostic teacher who knows what each child needs in this area. Instructional programs and vast amounts of materials can never become a substitute for a diagnostic teacher.

7. The end product should be sufficiently satisfying to make the instructional process tolerable. For the problem reader the process of learning to read is not enjoyable. It is difficult work that may seem impossible to the child. It becomes the teacher's task to show the child that the process is not impossible and the rewards derived from reading are worth the effort. This is not done by talking about the enjoyable consequences that will come from learning to read. It is done by letting the child sample reading experiences. The child who is allowed to read interesting materials at an appropriate level will sample reading enjoyment. Teachers who enthusiastically share satisfying reading experiences with their children will also help to make them realize that the end product of reading is worth the effort it takes to master the process.

Conclusion

A group of college professors was taking a tour of a school that was designed to meet the individual needs of the pupils. On that occasion the pupils were serving as guides. Joe, who was one of these guides, was not a top reader. One would suspect that he was in the lower reading group. He conducted the tour of the building pointing out the interesting details of each room. He showed great knowledge and approval of what was happening in his school. When Joe came to a particular room, he left his group, rushed over to a rack and picked up a book. He came back to the group with a broad smile and said, "This is a book I wrote last year when I was in Mrs. Johnson's room." He had great pride in his endeavor and even greater pride that his book was being read by the children now in Mrs. Johnson's room. Language Experience is not a panacea but it is an approach that can bring enjoyment into reading in many ways. Children, like Joe, experience the enjoyment of reading material that is written in their own words and from their own experiential background. They enjoy the pride of authorship and the sharing of their "masterpiece" with others. They enjoy the feeling of success in reading. Hopefully they will learn to enjoy both the process and the product of reading

NOTE

[1]Roach Van Allen, "Three Approaches to Teaching Reading," *Challenge and Experiment in Reading*, IRA Conference Proceedings, Vol. 7, 1962, p. 153.

WHOLE LANGUAGE READING STRATEGIES KIDS ENJOY

Susan Johnston

The whole language approach to reading is a lot easier than it sounds. With this method, reading is the process of getting meaning from print. The meaning of the material read is not conveyed by individual words in isolation, but by the whole context--the sentences, the paragraphs, or the whole story. Learning to read by using this approach is just that . . . reading for meaning, not just words.

A strategy is just another name for a skill. We have all taught skills either by means of a ditto, a worksheet, or a reading workbook. Strategies are child-oriented--the teacher supplies the framework and the child takes the risk of filling in the rest of the work. An enjoyable aspect of whole language strategies is that the child has a *positive* experience with reading and writing.

When using whole language reading the teacher accepts what the child writes as long as the child can read the message he is trying to convey. I stress that writing must be legible and make sense. After several assignments are shared, and a neighbor gives the paper back to the author because the message can not be read, the author usually "cleans up his act."

This approach also does not allow erasing--only cross-outs. Teachers can discover in which areas a child needs to work by just studying the cross-outs. Spelling is also inventive in nature. The child spells any way he must to get across his message. After seeing words repeated, having a good model to follow, and learning the word through usage, the child will spell correctly. Just be patient. We have not finished with him yet!

In my classroom the children write, read, speak and listen as an integrated part of their daily reading program. Remember--whole language is a *positive*, risk-taking approach to reading.

Written conversation is a very easy strategy that I use daily. The children are paired off in groups of two and they begin by conversing with pen and paper. The first student writes down what he wants to say, then reads his statement back to his partner. The partner then writes down his reply and, in turn, reads it to the first student. For example they may write:

Susan Johnston is an intermediate teacher at Bridgeton Elementary School.

I like your shirt.
Thanks, it's old.
Oh.
I like your shoes.
Thanks.

The children do this until they finish their conversation. The only rules to the strategy are:

(1) No erasing--cross-outs only.

(2) No teacher-made corrections on spelling, punctuation or wording.

The teacher accepts what the child is trying to do. It will be noticeable that after a while the child will correct himself by modeling after the teacher or peers.

Predictable storybooks are another strategy for fun variations. Predictable storybooks are books that can be read by reading the pictures, the words or the combination of the two. The story also has repeating words, phrases or sentences.

The first variation is called supportive reading. This strategy is similar to neurological impress. The teacher reads softly along with the child. When the child comes to a word he doesn't know, the teacher has the child look at the picture and asks the student what word would make sense in that sentence. If the child won't take the risk to guess the word, the teacher has the child skip the word. (You'll find that if the child rereads the books himself, he will often know the missed word.)

You will be surprised by what this strategy does for the child who has never before read a book or for the child who lacks confidence approaching new words.

Predictable storybooks are also fun to read aloud to children. With this variation, the teacher stops before he gets to the end of the story. Then he may ask the children to tell how they think the story will end, or have the children write their endings and share them with the rest of the class.

The daily log is a strategy which my children do. All the children use plain white pages stapled together with a cover. These are their journals, in which they write daily. I don't read them, but I do skim them to make sure they are writing daily. The children enjoy going back and rereading what they wrote months ago. They also notice how *they* have improved in their own writing.

These are basic strategies that were implemented daily in my own classroom. We wrote in our journals and paired up with different partners for written conversation. We also did variations of other strategies mentioned. The children even suggested some of their own ideas for strategies once we had gotten into whole language reading.

The first two months of school I had children asking, "When are we going to have reading?" They truly enjoyed reading. So did I.

Louise Clark, Coordinator, Instructional Resources Center, School of Education, with the display of Secondary Reading Materials.